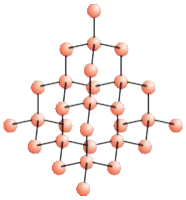
CHAPTER 4



Carbon and its Compounds

In the last Chapter, we came to know many compounds of importance to us. In this Chapter we will study about some more interesting compounds and their properties. Also, we shall be learning about carbon, an element which is of immense significance to us in both its elemental form and in the combined form.

Activity 4.1

- Make a list of ten things you have used or consumed since the morning.
- Compile this list with the lists made by your classmates and then sort the items into the adjacent Table.
- If there are items which are made up of more than one material, put them into both the relevant columns of the table.

Things made of metal	Things made of glass/clay	Others

Look at the items that come in the last column of the above table filled by you – your teacher will be able to tell you that most of them are made up of compounds of carbon. Can you think of a method to test this? What would be the product if a compound containing carbon is burnt? Do you know of any test to confirm this?

Food, clothes, medicines, books, or many of the things that you listed are all based on this versatile element carbon. In addition, all living structures are carbon based. The amount of carbon present in the earth's crust and in the atmosphere is quite meagre. The earth's crust has only 0.02% carbon in the form of minerals (like carbonates, hydrogen- carbonates, coal and petroleum) and the atmosphere has 0.03% of carbon dioxide. In spite of this small amount of carbon available in nature, the importance of carbon seems to be immense. In this Chapter, we will know about the

1064CH04

properties of carbon which make carbon so important to us.

4.1 BONDING IN CARBON – THE COVALENT BOND

In the previous Chapter, we have studied the properties of ionic compounds. We saw that ionic compounds have high melting and boiling points and conduct electricity in solution or in the molten state. We also

saw how the nature of bonding in ionic compounds explains these properties. Let us now study the properties of some carbon compounds.

Most carbon compounds are poor conductors of electricity as we have seen in Chapter 2. From the data given in Table 4.1 on the boiling and melting points of the carbon compounds, we find that these compounds have low melting and boiling points as compared to ionic compounds (Chapter 3). We can conclude that the forces of attraction between the molecules are not very strong. Since these compounds are largely non-conductors of electricity, we can conclude that the bonding in these compounds does not give rise to any ions. In Class IX, we learnt about the

Table 4.1 Melting points and boiling points of some compounds of carbon

Compound	Meltin g point (K)	Boilin g point (K)
Acetic acid (CH_3COOH)	290	391
Chloroform ($CHCl_3$)	209	334
Ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH)	156	351
Methane (CH_4)	90	111

combining capacity of various elements and how it depends on the number of valence electrons. Let us now look at the electronic configuration of carbon. The atomic number of carbon is 6. What would be the distribution of electrons in various shells of carbon? How many valence electrons will carbon have?

We know that the reactivity of elements is explained as their tendency to attain a completely filled outer shell, that is, attain noble gas configuration. Elements forming ionic compounds achieve this by either gaining or losing electrons from the outermost shell. In the case of carbon, it has four electrons in its outermost shell and needs to gain or lose four electrons to attain noble gas configuration. If it were to gain or lose electrons –

(i) It could gain four electrons forming C^{4-} anion. But it would be difficult for the nucleus with six protons to hold on to ten electrons, that is, four extra electrons.

(ii) It could lose four electrons forming C^{4+} cation. But it would require a large amount of energy to remove four electrons leaving behind a carbon cation with six protons in its nucleus holding on to just two electrons.

Carbon overcomes this problem by sharing its valence electrons with other atoms of carbon or with atoms of other elements. Not just carbon, but many other elements form molecules by sharing electrons in this manner. The shared electrons 'belong' to the outermost shells of both the atoms and lead to both atoms attaining the noble gas configuration. Before going on to compounds of carbon, let us look at some simple molecules formed by the sharing of valence electrons.

The simplest molecule formed in this manner is that of hydrogen. As you have learnt earlier, the atomic number of hydrogen is 1. Hence hydrogen has one electron in its K shell and it requires one more electron to fill the K shell. So two hydrogen atoms share their electrons to form a molecule of hydrogen, H_2. This allows each hydrogen atom to attain the

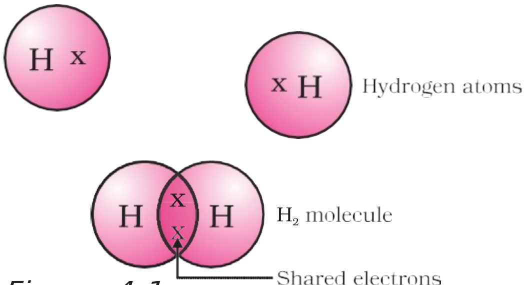


Figure 4.1
A molecule of hydrogen

electronic configuration of the nearest noble gas, helium, which has two electrons in its K shell. We can depict this using dots or crosses to represent valence electrons (Fig. 4.1).

The shared pair of electrons is said to constitute a single covalent bond between the two hydrogen atoms. A single covalent bond is also represented by a line between the two atoms, as shown in Fig. 4.2.

The atomic number of chlorine is 17. What would be its electronic configuration and its valency? Chlorine forms a diatomic molecule, Cl_2. Can you draw the electron dot structure for this molecule? Note that only the valence shell electrons need to be depicted.

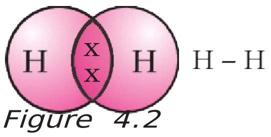


Figure 4.2
Single bond between two hydrogen atoms

In the case of oxygen, we see the formation of a double bond between two oxygen atoms. This is because an atom of oxygen has six electrons in its L shell (the atomic number of oxygen is eight) and it requires two more electrons to complete its octet. So each atom of oxygen shares two electrons with another atom of oxygen to give us the structure shown in Fig. 4.3. The two electrons contributed by each oxygen atom give rise to two shared pairs of electrons. This is said to constitute a double bond between the two atoms.

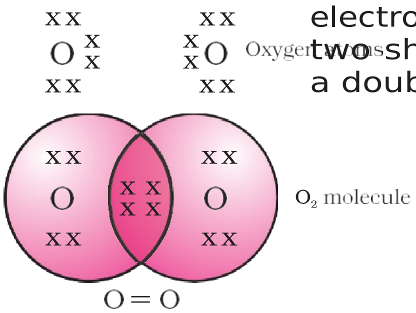


Figure 4.3
Double bond between two oxygen atoms

Can you now depict a molecule of water showing the nature of bonding between one oxygen atom and two hydrogen atoms? Does the molecule have single bonds or double bonds?

What would happen in the case of a diatomic molecule of nitrogen? Nitrogen has the atomic number 7. What would be its electronic configuration and its combining capacity? In order to attain an octet, each nitrogen atom in a molecule of nitrogen contributes three electrons giving rise to three shared pairs of electrons. This is said to constitute a triple bond between the two atoms. The electron dot structure of N_2 and its triple bond can be depicted as in Fig. 4.4.

A molecule of ammonia has the formula NH_3. Can you draw the electron dot structure for this molecule showing how all four atoms achieve noble gas configuration? Will the molecule have single, double or triple bonds?

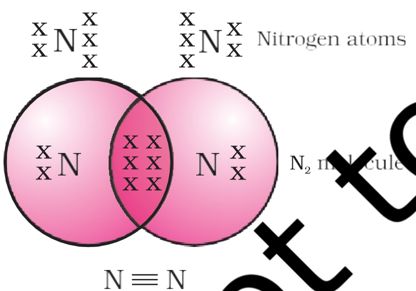


Figure 4.4
Triple bond between two nitrogen atoms

Let us now take a look at methane, which is a compound of carbon. Methane is widely used as a fuel and is a major component of bio-gas and Compressed Natural Gas (CNG). It is also one of the simplest compounds formed by carbon. Methane has a formula CH_4. Hydrogen,

as you know , has a valency of 1. Carbon is tetravalent because it has four valence electrons. In order to achieve noble gas configuration, carbon shares these electrons with four atoms of hydrogen as shown in Fig. 4.5.

Such bonds which are formed by the sharing of an electron pair between two atoms are known as covalent bonds. Covalently bonded molecules are seen to have strong bonds within the molecule, but inter- molecular forces are weak. This gives rise to the low melting and boiling

points of these compounds. Since the electrons are shared between atoms and no charged particles are formed, such covalent compounds are generally poor conductors of electricity.

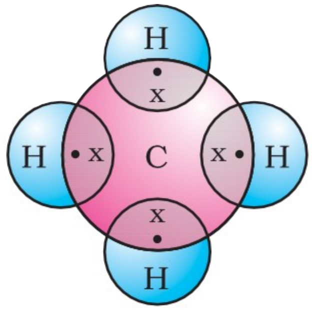
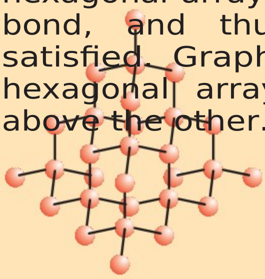


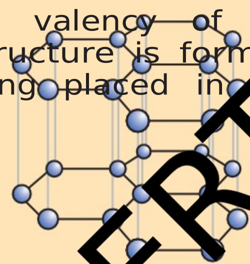
Figure 4.5
Electron dot structure for methane

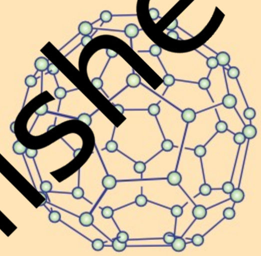
More to

Allotropes of carbon

The element carbon occurs in different forms in nature with widely varying physical properties. Both diamond and graphite are formed by carbon atoms, the difference lies in the manner in which the carbon atoms are bonded to one another. In diamond, each carbon atom is bonded to four other carbon atoms forming a rigid three-dimensional structure. In graphite, each carbon atom is bonded to three other carbon atoms in the same plane giving a hexagonal array. One of these bonds is a double-bond, and thus the valency of carbon is satisfied. Graphite structure is formed by the hexagonal arrays being placed in layers one above the other.







The structure of diamond

The structure of graphite

The structure of C-60 Buckminsterfullerene

These two different structures result in diamond and graphite having very different physical properties even though their chemical properties are the same. Diamond is the hardest substance known while graphite is smooth and slippery. Graphite is also a very good conductor of electricity unlike other non-metals that you studied in the previous Chapter.

Diamonds can be synthesised by subjecting pure carbon to very high pressure and temperature. These synthetic diamonds are small but are otherwise indistinguishable from natural diamonds.

Fullerenes form another class of carbon allotropes. The first one to be identified was C-60 which has carbon atoms arranged in the shape of a football. Since this looked like the geodesic dome designed by the US architect Buckminster Fuller, the molecule was named fullerene.

Q U E S T I O N S

What would be the electron dot structure of carbon dioxide which has the formula CO_2?

What would be the electron dot structure of a molecule of sulphur which is made up of eight atoms of sulphur? (**Hint** – The eight atoms of sulphur are joined together in the form

4.2 VERSATILE NATURE OF CARBON

We have seen the formation of covalent bonds by the sharing of electrons in various elements and compounds. We have also seen the structure of a simple carbon compound, methane. In the beginning of the Chapter, we saw how many things we use contain carbon. In fact, we ourselves are made up of carbon compounds. The numbers of carbon compounds whose formulae are known to chemists was recently estimated to be in millions! This outnumbers by a large margin the compounds formed by all the other elements put together. Why is it that this property is seen in carbon and no other element? The nature of the covalent bond enables carbon to form a large number of compounds. Two factors noticed in the case of carbon are –

(i) Carbon has the unique ability to form bonds with other atoms of carbon, giving rise to large molecules. This property is called catenation. These compounds may have long chains of carbon, branched chains of carbon or even carbon atoms arranged in rings. In addition, carbon atoms may be linked by single, double or triple bonds. Compounds of carbon, which are linked by only single bonds between the carbon atoms are called saturated compounds. Compounds of carbon having double or triple bonds between their carbon atoms are called unsaturated compounds.

No other element exhibits the property of catenation to the extent seen in carbon compounds. Silicon forms compounds with hydrogen which have chains of upto seven or eight atoms, but these compounds are very reactive. The carbon-carbon bond is very strong and hence stable. This gives us the large number of compounds with many carbon atoms linked to each other.

(ii) Since carbon has a valency of four, it is capable of bonding with four other atoms of carbon or atoms of some other mono-valent element. Compounds of carbon are formed with oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulphur, chlorine and many other elements giving rise to compounds with specific properties which depend on the elements other than carbon present in the molecule.

Again the bonds that carbon forms with most other elements are very strong making these compounds exceptionally stable. One reason for the formation of strong bonds by carbon is its small size. This enables the nucleus to hold on to the shared pairs of electrons

strongly. The bonds formed by elements having bigger atoms are much weaker.

More to know!

Organic compounds

The two characteristic features seen in carbon, that is, tetravalency and catenation, put together give rise to a large number of compounds. Many have the same non-carbon atom or group of atoms attached to different carbon chains. These compounds were initially extracted from natural substances and it was thought that these carbon compounds or organic compounds could only be formed within a living system. That is, it was postulated that a 'vital force' was necessary for their synthesis. Friedrich Wöhler disproved this in 1828 by preparing urea from ammonium cyanate. But carbon compounds, except for carbides, oxides of carbon, carbonate and hydrogencarbonate salts continue to be studied under organic chemistry.

4.2.1 Saturated and Unsaturated Carbon Compounds

We have already seen the structure of methane. Another compound formed between carbon and hydrogen is ethane with a formula of C_2H_6. In order to arrive at the structure of simple carbon compounds, the first step is to link the carbon atoms together with a single bond (Fig. 4.6a) and then use the hydrogen atoms to satisfy the remaining valencies of carbon (Fig. 4.6b). For example, the structure of ethane is arrived in the following steps –

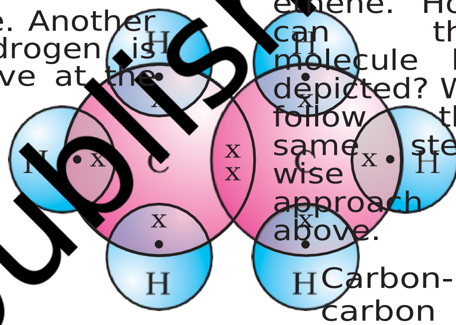
C—C Step 1

Figure 4.6 (a) Carbon atoms linked together with a single bond

Three valencies of each carbon atom remain unsatisfied, so each is bonded to three hydrogen atoms giving:

Step 2

Figure 4.6 (b) Each carbon atom bonded to three hydrogen atoms

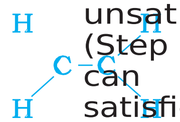


The electron dot structure of ethane is shown in Fig. 4.6(c).

Can you draw the structure of propane, which has the molecular formula C_3H_8 in a similar manner? You will see that the valencies of all the atoms are satisfied by single bonds between them. Such carbon compounds are called saturated compounds. These compounds are normally not very reactive.

However, another compound of carbon and hydrogen has the formula C_2H_4 and is called ethene. How can this molecule be depicted? We follow the same step-wise approach as above.

Carbon-carbon atoms linked together with a single bond (Step 1).



We see that one valency per carbon atom remains unsatisfied (Step 2). This can be satisfied only if there is a double bond between the two carbons (Step 3).

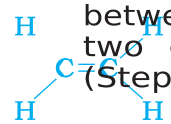


Figure 4.6
(c) Electron dot structure of ethane

C—C Step 1

Step 2

Step 3

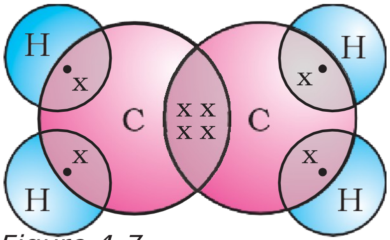


Figure 4.7
Structure of ethene

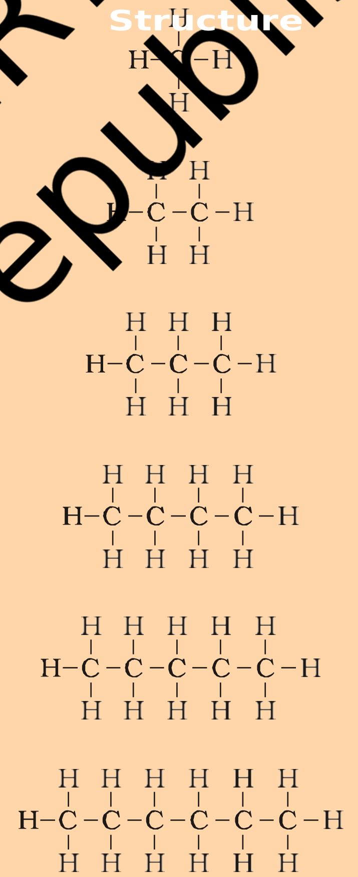
The electron dot structure for ethene is given in Fig. 4.7.

Yet another compound of hydrogen and carbon has the formula C_2H_2 and is called ethyne. Can you draw the electron dot structure for ethyne? How many bonds are necessary between the two carbon atoms in order to satisfy their valencies? Such compounds of carbon having double or triple bonds between the carbon atoms are known as unsaturated carbon compounds and they are more reactive than the saturated carbon compounds.

4.2.2 Chains, Branches and Rings

In the earlier section, we mentioned the carbon compounds methane, ethane and propane, containing respectively 1, 2 and 3 carbon atoms. Such 'chains' of carbon atoms can contain many more carbon atoms. The names and structures of six of these are given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Formulae and structures of saturated compounds of carbon and hydrogen

No. of C atoms	Name	Formula	Structure
1	Metha	CH	

6	Hexa	C_6H

But, let us take another look at butane. If we make the carbon 'skeleton' with four carbon atoms, we see that two different possible 'skeletons' are –

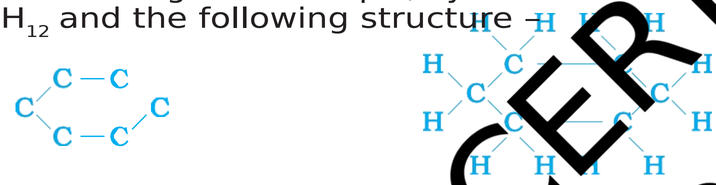
Figure 4.8 (a) Two possible carbon-skeletons

Filling the remaining valencies with hydrogen gives us –

Figure 4.8 (b) Complete molecules for two structures with formula C_4H_{10}

We see that both these structures have the same formula C_4H_{10}. Such compounds with identical molecular formula but different structures are called structural isomers.

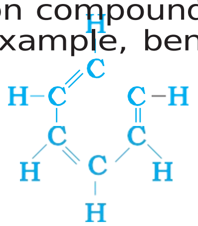
In addition to straight and branched carbon chains, some compounds have carbon atoms arranged in the form of a ring. For example, cyclohexane has the formula C_6H_{12} and the following structure –



(a) (b)

Figure 4.9 Structure of cyclohexane (a) carbon skeleton (b) complete molecule

Can you draw the electron dot structure for cyclohexane? Straight chain, branched chain and cyclic carbon compounds, all may be saturated or unsaturated. For example, benzene, C_6H_6, has the following structure –



Benzene — C_6H_6

Figure 4.10 Structure of benzene

All these carbon compounds which contain only carbon and hydrogen are called hydrocarbons. Among these, the saturated hydrocarbons are called alkanes. The unsaturated hydrocarbons which contain one or more double bonds are called alkenes. Those containing one or more triple bonds are called alkynes.

4.2.3 Will you be my FriendY

Carbon seems to be a very friendly element. So far we have

been looking at compounds containing carbon and hydrogen only. But carbon also forms

bonds with other elements such as halogens, oxygen, nitrogen and sulphur. In a hydrocarbon chain, one or more hydrogens can be replaced by these elements, such that the valency of carbon remains satisfied. In such compounds, the element replacing hydrogen is referred to as a heteroatom. These heteroatoms are also present in some groups as given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Some functional groups in carbon compounds

Hetero atom	*Class of compounds*	*Formula of functional group*
Cl/Br	Halo- (Chloro/bromo) alkane	—Cl, —Br (substitutes for hydrogen atom)
Oxygen	1. Alcohol	—OH
	2. Aldehyde	$-C(H)=O$
	3. Ketone	$-C(=O)-$
	4. Carboxylic acid	$-C(=O)-OH$

These heteroatoms and the group containing these confer specific properties to the compound, regardless of the length and nature of the carbon chain and hence are called functional groups. Some important functional groups are given in the Table 4.3. Free valency or valencies of the group are shown by the single line. The functional group is attached to the carbon chain through this valency by replacing one hydrogen atom or atoms.

4.2.4 Homologous Series

You have seen that carbon atoms can be linked together to form chains of varying lengths. These chains can be branched also. In addition, hydrogen atom or other atoms on these carbon chains can be replaced by any of the functional groups that we saw above. The presence of a functional group such as alcohol decides the properties of the carbon compound, regardless of the length of the carbon chain. For example, the chemical properties of CH_3OH, C_2H_5OH, C_3H_7OH and C_4H_9OH are all very similar. Hence, such a series of compounds in which the same functional group substitutes for hydrogen in a carbon chain is called a homologous series.

Let us look at the homologous series that we saw earlier in Table 4.2. If we look at the formulae of successive compounds, say –

CH_4 and C_2H_6 — these differ by a –CH_2- unit
C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 — these

differ by a –CH_2- unit

What is the difference between the next pair – propane and butane (C_4H_{10})? Can you find out the difference in molecular masses between these pairs (the atomic mass of carbon is 12 u and the atomic mass of hydrogen is 1 u)?

Similarly, take the homologous series for alkenes. The first member of the series is ethene which we have already come across in Section 4.2.1. What is the formula for ethene? The succeeding members have the formula C_3H_6, C_4H_8 and C_5H_{10}. Do these also differ by a –CH_2–

unit? Do you see any relation between the number of carbon and hydrogen atoms in these compounds? The general formula for alkenes

can be written as C_nH_{2n}, where n = 2, 3, 4. Can you similarly generate the general formula for alkanes and alkynes?

As the molecular mass increases in any homologous series, a gradation in physical properties is seen. This is because the melting and boiling points increase with increasing molecular mass. Other physical properties such as solubility in a particular solvent also show a similar gradation. But the chemical properties, which are determined solely by the functional group, remain similar in a homologous series.

- Calculate the difference in the formulae and molecular masses for (a) CH_3OH and C_2H_5OH (b) C_2H_5OH and C_3H_7OH, and (c) C_3H_7OH and C_4H_9OH.
- Is there any similarity in these three?
- Arrange these alcohols in the order of increasing carbon atoms to get a family. Can we call this family a homologous series?
- Generate the homologous series for compounds containing up to four carbons for the other functional groups given in Table 4.3.

4.2.5 Nomenclature of Carbon Compounds

The names of compounds in a homologous series are based on the name of the basic carbon chain modified by a "prefix" "phrase before" or "suffix" "phrase after" indicating the nature of the functional group. For example, the names of the alcohols taken in Activity 4.2 are methanol, ethanol, propanol and butanol.

Naming a carbon compound can be done by the following method –

(i) Identify the number of carbon atoms in the compound. A compound having three carbon atoms would have the name propane.

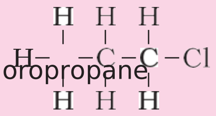
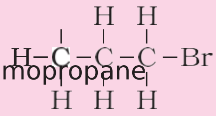
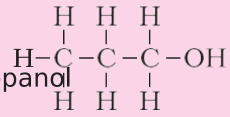
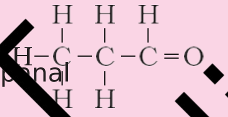
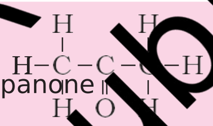
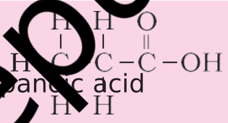
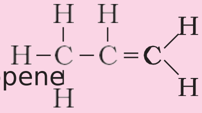
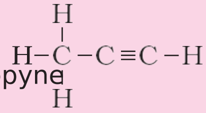
(ii) In case a functional group is present, it is indicated in the name of the compound with either a prefix or a suffix (as given in Table 4.4).

(iii) If the name of the functional group is to be given as a suffix, and the suffix of the functional group begins with a vowel a, e, i, o, u, then the name of the carbon chain is modified by deleting the final 'e' and adding the appropriate suffix. For example, a three-carbon chain with a ketone group would be named in the following manner – Propane – 'e' =

propan + ‘one’ = propanone.

(iv) If the carbon chain is unsaturated, then the final ‘ane’ in the name of the carbon chain is substituted by ‘ene’ or ‘yne’ as given in Table 4.4. For example, a three-carbon chain with a double bond would be called propene and if it has a triple bond, it would be called propyne.

Table 4.4 Nomenclature of organic compounds

Class of compounds	Prefix/Suffix	Example
1. Halo alkane	Prefix-chloro, bromo, etc.	Chloropropane 
		Bromopropane 
2. Alcohol	Suffix - ol	Propanol 
3. Aldehyde	Suffix - al	Propanal 
4. Ketone	Suffix - one	Propanone 
5. Carboxylic acid	Suffix - oic acid	Propanoic acid 
6. Alkenes	Suffix - ene	Propene 
7. Alkynes	Suffix - yne	Propyne 

Q U E S T I O N S

How many structural isomers can you draw for pentane?
What are the two properties of carbon which lead to the huge number of carbon compounds we see around
What will be the formula and electron dot structure of cyclopentane?

The soap micelles are large enough to scatter light. Hence a soap solution appears cloudy.

Figure 4.13 Effect of soap in cleaning

Activity 4.11

Take about 10 mL of distilled water (or rain water) and 10 mL of hard water (from a tu
Add a couple of drops of soap solution to both.
Shake the test tubes vigorously for an equal period of time and observe the amount
In which test tube do you get more foam?
In which test tube do you observe a white curdy precipitate? Note for the teacher : If

Activity 4.12

Take two test tubes with about 10 mL of hard water in each.
Add five drops of soap solution to one and five drops of detergent solution to the other
Shake both test tubes for the same period.
Do both test tubes have the same amount of foam?
In which test tube is a curdy solid formed?

Have you ever observed while bathing that foam is formed with difficulty and an insoluble substance (scum) remains after washing with water? This is caused by the reaction of soap with the calcium and magnesium salts, which cause the hardness of water. Hence you need to use a larger amount of soap. This problem is overcome by using another class of compounds called detergents as cleansing agents. Detergents are generally sodium salts of sulphonic acids or ammonium salts with chlorides or bromides ions, etc. Both have long hydrocarbon chain. The charged ends of these compounds do not form insoluble precipitates with the calcium and magnesium ions in hard water. Thus, they remain effective in hard water. Detergents are usually used to make shampoos and products for cleaning clothes.

QUESTIONS

Would you be able to check if water is hard by using a detergent?
People use a variety of methods to wash clothes. Usually after adding the soap, they 'beat' the clothes on a

What you have learnt

- Carbon is a versatile element that forms the basis for all living organisms and many of the things we use.
- This large variety of compounds is formed by carbon because of its tetravalency and the property of catenation that it exhibits.
- Covalent bonds are formed by the sharing of electrons between two atoms so that both can achieve a completely filled outermost shell.
- Carbon forms covalent bonds with itself and other elements such as hydrogen, oxygen, sulphur, nitrogen and chlorine.
- Carbon also forms compounds containing double and triple bonds between carbon atoms. These carbon chains may be in the form of straight chains, branched chains or rings.
- The ability of carbon to form chains gives rise to a homologous series of compounds in which the same functional group is attached to carbon chains of different lengths.
- The functional groups such as alcohols, aldehydes, ketones and carboxylic acids bestow characteristic properties to the carbon compounds that contain them.
- Carbon and its compounds are some of our major sources of fuels.
- Ethanol and ethanoic acid are carbon compounds of importance in our daily lives.
- The action of soaps and detergents is based on the presence of both hydrophobic and hydrophilic groups in the molecule and this helps to emulsify the oily dirt and hence its removal.

EXERCISES

1. Ethane, with the molecular formula C_2H_6 has
   (a) 6 covalent bonds.
   (b) 7 covalent bonds.
   (c) 8 covalent bonds.
   (d) 9 covalent bonds.
2. Butanone is a four-carbon compound with the functional group
   (a) carboxylic acid.
   (b) aldehyde.
   (c) ketone.
   (d) alcohol.
3. While cooking, if the bottom of the vessel is getting blackened on the outside, it means that
   (a) the food is not cooked completely.
   (b) the fuel is not burning completely.
   (c) the fuel is wet.
   (d) the fuel is burning completely.

4. Explain the nature of the covalent bond using the bond formation in CH_3Cl.
5. Draw the electron dot structures for
   (a) ethanoic acid.
   (b) H_2S.
   (c) propanone.
   (d) F_2 .
6. What is an homologous series? Explain with an example.
7. How can ethanol and ethanoic acid be differentiated on the basis of their physical and chemical properties?
8. Why does micelle formation take place when soap is added to water? Will a micelle be formed in other solvents such as ethanol also?
9. Why are carbon and its compounds used as fuels for most applications?
10. Explain the formation of scum when hard water is treated with soap.
11. What change will you observe if you test soap with litmus paper (red and blue)?
12. What is hydrogenation? What is its industrial application?
13. Which of the following hydrocarbons undergo addition reactions: C_2H_6, C_3H_8, C_3H_6, C_2H_2 and CH_4.
14. Give a test that can be used to differentiate between saturated and unsaturated hydrocarbons.
15. Explain the mechanism of the cleaning action of soaps.

Group ActŤvŤty

I Use molecular model kits to make models of the compounds you have learnt in this Chapter.

II ■ Take about 20 mL of castor oil/cotton seed oil/linseed oil/soyabean oil in a beaker. Add 30 mL of 20 % sodium hydroxide solution. Heat the mixture with continuous stirring for a few minutes till the mixture thickens. Add 5-10 g of common salt to this. Stir the mixture well and allow it to cool.

■ You can cut out the soap in fancy shapes. You can also add perfume to the soap before it sets.